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ABSTRACT

This publication is one of five training manuals that present plans and materials for use in instructing school administrators in some of the concepts, principles, and techniques of educational management. They were developed as part of the Educational Management Project for presentation at weekly inservice meetings for administrators in the Tucson Public Schools in 1973-74. Altogether, the five manuals contain outlines and instructional materials for 15 inservice training sessions; this particular booklet deals with sessions 4, 5, 6, 16, and 17, which focus on communication skills and leadership functions. The set of materials for each session includes (1) an instructor's guide and a list of the performance objectives for that session, (2) participant handouts for use as reference material during and after the session, (3) participant worksheets for illustrating or practicing skills introduced during the session, and (4) a posttest for determining whether the participants met the session's objectives. The sessions may be conducted separately as topical workshops or together as a comprehensive one-semester inservice course. (Author/JG)

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EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

AN INSERVICE TRAINING MANUAL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

PART IV

COMMUNICATION AND LEADERSHIP

(DIRECTING FUNCTION)

Management Study Group Sessions 4, 5, 6, 16, 17

Produced by
The Educational Management Project
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools
Tucson, Arizona
June, 1974

EA 008 065

TO THE PROSPECTIVE INSTRUCTOR:

These materials are part of a set of 17 sessions for instructing practicing school administrators in some of the concepts, principles and techniques of educational management. They were originally designed to be conducted at weekly inservice meetings for administrators in Tucson, Arizona during the 1973-74 school year.

To become familiar with the scope of educational management, an administrator should participate in all 17 sessions. However, if you are interested in introducing administrators to only certain aspects of the field, almost any session can be conducted as a unit.

Each set of session materials consists of these items:

1) An instructor's guide for conducting each session activity and a list of the performance objectives for that session
2) All participant handouts for use as reference material during and after the session
3) All participant worksheets for illustrating or practicing skills introduced during the session
4) A posttest for determining whether the participants met the session's objectives (which may also be administered as a pretest).

Each two-and-a-half-hour session was designed to be conducted in three parts:

1) Review of the previous session and informal conversation (15-45 minutes)
2) Administration of pretest for current session and posttest for previous session, discussion of posttest (15-30 minutes)
3) Session activities as described in the instructor's guide (up to 2 hours)

Most of the sessions, however, take longer to conduct than two and a half hours. Depending upon the administrators' level of interest and the degree of difficulty they have in understanding session topics, the total time needed can be as much as 5-6 hours. Be prepared to schedule a second meeting to complete each session.

Before you schedule and conduct any of the sessions, make sure you are prepared to lead the discussions and answer any questions raised by the administrators in the group. To help you do this, we have prepared a list of readings keyed to each session topic (or to sets of related topics). This annotated bibliography is available from the Project under the title of "Readings for the Preparation of the Study Group instructor".

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROJECT
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Management Study Group

Session 4

Communication for Understanding

Objectives

After participating in this session's activities, the participants will:

1. Comprehend the differences between these three kinds of communication: simple one-way communication, one-way communication with feedback, and two-way communication. (23)
2. Be able to apply the technique of behavior description as a means of clarifying others' feelings in a communication. (23)
3. Be able to apply the rules of effective listening in summarizing the content of communications. (23)
4. Be able to apply the technique of paraphrasing as a means of clarifying the ideas of others in a communication. (23)

The first objective will be measured by means of a test administered to the participants before and after the session's activities. Participant success in achieving the last three objectives will be measured by means of a checklist for observing participant behavior during Session 5 activities.

Activities for Part 3 of This Session

4-1. Definition and Discussion of the Different Kinds of Communication (30 minutes)

Relate to the group an incident of miscommunication in which you (the team leader) were guilty of one or more faults such as faulty translation, inattention, or premature evaluation. Ask the group to evaluate the incident and to identify and analyze what went wrong. After a brief discussion, ask the group, "What is communication? How would you define it?"

Record the participants' definitions on the blackboard, emphasizing the definition of simple communication as the transfer of information from one person to another. On the board, write, "Communication is the transfer of information from one person (a sender) to another (a receiver) for the purpose of _____." Ask the participants to fill in the blank. Emphasize (or supply if the major purposes are not identified) the two purposes of (1) achieving or verifying mutual understanding and (2) identifying and resolving differences of opinion.

Define, describe and illustrate by means of board diagrams and suitable examples the three different kinds of communication: simple one-way communication, one-way communication with feedback to achieve or verify understanding, and two-way communication with feedback to identify and resolve disagreements. In preparation for the next activity, summarize this presentation about the three kinds of communication after the group has had the opportunity to ask questions about the distinctions being made.

4-2. Listening, One of the Basic Skills of Communication (20 minutes)

Ask the group to cover any notes they have made during the preceding discussion, and instruct them to write a summary of what the team leader said. Allow only about two minutes for this task. Distribute Handout 4-1, "Kinds of Communication," and ask two or three participants to read their summaries. Collect the summaries from the group, and have an assistant score these summaries in order to determine the group's average listening effectiveness.

[Score each summary as follows:

1. Identification of the main point as "communication" or something similar: 40 points.
2. Identification of each of the three kinds of communication (simple one-way, one-way with feedback, two-way): 20 points each.

Compute the number of points for each summary and then compute the average effectiveness percentage for the group.]

Point out to the group that an average listener does not hear 100 percent of a spoken message, that we usually remember only about 50 percent of what we hear and that three days later, we remember only about 10 percent. Note also that other studies have shown a message's content is reduced by 30 percent every time it is transmitted to another person.

Present Handout 4-2, "The Rules of Effective Listening," to the participants. Discuss how these rules would have applied to the preceding summary about the three kinds of communication.

4-3. Paraphrasing, A Skill Required for Effective Feedback (30 minutes)

Describe paraphrasing as one of the skills required of the receivers of communicated messages. Explain what paraphrasing is and why it is necessary for both one-

way and two-way communication.

Divide the group in half, assigning principals to one team and coordinators to the other team. Inform the coordinator team that they are to act as "receivers" and that the principals will act as "senders." The task of the "principal" team will be to tell the receivers what they feel are the greatest differences between being a principal and being a coordinator of a special project or department. The task of the "coordinator" team will be to paraphrase the statements made by the principals. Assign each coordinator one of the members of the "principal" team to paraphrase. As the teams complete this task, allow no discussion of opinions among the team members nor any digressions. Make sure each person making a statement approves the paraphrase before going on to the next team member.

4-4. Behavior Description as a Means of Checking Receiver Perception (30 minutes)

Briefly describe the nature and purpose of describing verbal and non-verbal behavior in a group communication setting. Explain the difference between a listener's perception of a speaker's emotional state and the observable behaviors which led to this perception.

Ask the "coordinator" team to recall the statements made by the principals in the previous activity. They are to discuss whether these statements were accurate descriptions of the differences between the roles of principal and coordinator. While the coordinators discuss this topic, the principals are to act as observers. Assign half the task of recording all pertinent non-verbal behavior and assign the other half the task of recording the frequency of participation, the relative duration of each person's contributions and other pertinent verbal behaviors. After 10-15 minutes, stop the discussion and reassemble the entire group. Have the observers read their lists of observations and state what their perceptions would be. Check with each person who was observed to verify the observers' accuracy.

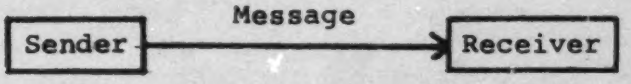
At the end of the session, distribute Handouts 4-3, "Paraphrase" and Handout 4-4, "Behavior Description."

Kinds of Communication

1. Simple One-Way Communication (no feedback)

In its simplest form, communication is the transfer of information from one person to another. Information flows in one direction only. The message to be communicated is not changed in any way by the receiver.

Illustration:

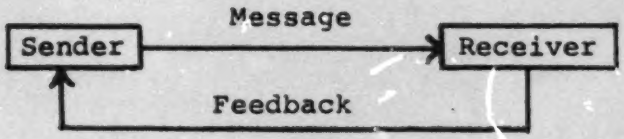


Examples: Dittoed announcements in faculty mailboxes, a lecture when everyone leaves as soon as the lecturer finishes his speech, television presentations.

2. One-Way Communication With Feedback

This is a modification of Simple One-Way Communication in that some effort is made to make sure the receiver understood the message as the sender intended. The purpose of this kind of communication is to achieve or verify mutual understanding of the message being communicated. The original message is not changed by this kind of feedback; only the receiver's degree of understanding is influenced.

Illustration:



(for understanding)

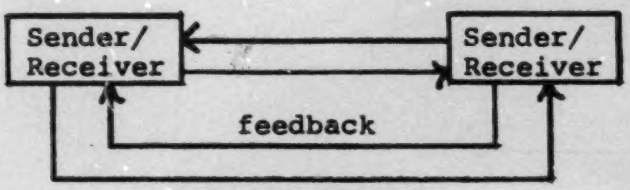
Examples: A written or spoken announcement of a new policy which ends with the invitation, "if you have any questions, please let me know"; a lecture which is followed by a question-and-answer period; a converstation in which the listener asks the speaker to describe how his suggestion could be put into practice.

3. Two-Way Communication

Two-way communication is the transfer of information for the purpose of identifying and resolving differences of opinion. This kind of communication is made up of a complex series of one-way communications with feedback. In other words, before agreement can be reached on an issue, the persons communicating must be certain first, that they understand each other's positions. All persons involved in such communication act as both senders and receivers of communications.

The original message may be changed as the result of this interaction. The feedback in a two-way communication setting is the only kind of feedback deserving the term "input."

Illustration:



(for achieving agreement)

Examples: A faculty meeting in which a principal's proposal is modified or rescinded as the result of new information supplied by faculty members; a written list of objectives that is revised after the writer solicits and receives written reactions from several other staff members, a U.S. president's change of behavior in response to fluctuations in public opinion poll ratings.

Rules for Effective Listening

1. When you should listen:

   a. when you know someone who is not present will ask you to report on what you heard.
   b. when you know you will be asked to respond to some instruction with appropriate action later.
   c. when you are a member of a group assigned the task of making a recommendation or taking some action with which you all agree.
   d. when you know someone is going to ask for your opinion about someone else's position or suggestion.
   e. (there are others)

2. How you should listen (in order to be an effective listener):

   a. Begin summarizing the speaker's statement from the beginning; do not wait until he finishes and then try to recall what he said.
   b. Isolate the "critical content" in formulating the summary in your mind. Critical content consists of the main point and the supporting statements. Look for a standard format such as (1) statement of opinion and reasons for holding that opinion, (2) statement of a major category and the listing of sub-categories, (3) identification of one or more items or suggested strategies and the comparision of advantages and disadvantages.
   c. Cue your memory as you listen by giving one- or two-word labels to the critical content of the message. Short labels for main point and supporting statements will result in a minimum number of words you must recall later when you'll be asked to respond.
   d. Avoid distractions. Do not be distracted by emotional overtones in the speaker's voice or by "background noise." Background noise is irrelevant to communication, and emotional overtones must be considered separately from the speaker's actual message. Do not be distracted by digressions, extended examples or illustrations, or the relative amount of time the speaker spends on each point he is making. These distractions divert your attention from the speaker's message.
   e. Above all, do not be distracted by your own attitudes or opinions about the subject of the communication to which you are listening. Do not confuse what the speaker is saying with what you would say were you the speaker.

Paraphrase

A Basic Communication Skill for Improving Interpersonal Relationships

The Problem: Tell somebody your phone number and he will usually repeat it to make sure he heard it correctly. However, if you make a complicated statement, most people will express agreement or disagreement without trying to insure that they are responding to what you intend. Most people seem to assume that what they understand from a statement is what the other intends.

How do you check to make sure that you understand another person's ideas, information, or suggestions as he intended them? How do you know that his remark means the same to you as it does to him?

Of course, you can get the other person to clarify his remark by asking, "What do you mean?" or "Tell me more," of by saying "I don't understand." However, after he has elaborated you still face the same question. "Am I understanding his idea as he intended it to be understood?" Your feeling of certainty is no evidence that you do in fact understand.

The Skill: If you state in your own way what his remark conveys to you, the other can begin to determine whether his message is coming through as he intended. Then, if he thinks you misunderstand, he can speak directly to the specific misunderstanding you have revealed. I will use the term "paraphrase" for any means of showing the other person some of the meaning you got from what he said.

Paraphrasing, then, is any way of revealing your understanding of the other person's comment to test your understanding.

An additional benefit of paraphrasing is that it lets the other know that you are interested in him. It is evidence that you do want to understand what he means. If you can satisfy the other that you really do understand his point, he will probably be more willing to attempt to understand your views.

Paraphrasing, thus, is crucial in attempting to bridge the interpersonal gap. (1) It increases the accuracy of communication, and thus the degree of mutual or shared understanding. (2) The act of paraphrasing itself conveys feeling -- your interest in the other, your concern to see how he views things.

Learning to paraphrase: People sometimes think of paraphrasing as merely putting the other person's ideas in another way. They try to say the same thing with different words. Such word-swapping may merely result in an illusion of mutual understanding, as in the following example.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.
Fred: You mean teaching isn't the right job for him?
Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for Jim.

Instead of trying to re-word Sarah's statement, Fred might have asked himself, "What does Sarah's statement mean to me?" In that case the interchange might have sounded like this.

Sarah: Jim should never have become a teacher.
Fred: You mean he is too harsh on the children? Maybe even cruel?
Sarah: Oh, no. I meant that he has such expensive tastes that he can't ever earn enough as a teacher.
Fred: Oh, I see. You think he should have gone into a field that would have insured him a higher standard of living.
Sarah: Exactly! Teaching is not the right job for Jim.

Effective paraphrasing is not a trick or a verbal gimmick. It comes from an attitude, a desire to know what the other means. And to satisfy this desire you reveal the meaning his comment had for you so that the other can check whether it matches the meaning he intended it to convey.

If the other's statement was general, it may convey something <u>specific</u> to you.

Larry: I'd certainly like to own this book.
You: Does it have useful information in it?
Larry: I don't know about that; I mean the binding is beautiful.

Possibly the other's comments suggests an <u>example</u> to you.

Laura: This text has too many omissions; we shouldn't adopt it.
You: Do you mean, for example, that it contains nothing about the Negro's role in the development of America?
Laura: Yes, that's one example. It also lacks any discussion of the development of the arts in America.

If the speaker's comment was very specific, it may convey a <u>more general</u> idea to you.

Ralph: Do you have 25 pencils I can borrow for my class?
You: Do you just want something for them to write with? I have about 15 ball-point pens and 10 or 11 pencils.
Ralph: Great. Anything that will write will do.

Sometimes the other's idea will suggest its inverse or opposite to you.

Stanley: I think the Teacher's Union acts so irresponsibly because the Administration has ignored them so long.

You: Do you mean that the T.U. would be less militant now if the Administration had consulted with them in the past?

Stanley: Certainly. I think the T.U. is being forced to more and more desperate measures.

To develop your skill in understanding others, try different ways of (1) conveying your interest in understanding what they mean, (2) revealing what the other's statements mean to you. Find out what kinds of responses are helpful ways of paraphrasing for you.

The next time someone is angry with you or is criticizing you, try to paraphrase until you can demonstrate that you understand what he is trying to convey as he intends it. What effect does this have on your feelings and on his?

Source: Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, Eugene, Oregon, 1971.

Behavior Description

A Basic Communication Skill for Improving Interpersonal Relationships

The problem: If you and another person are to discuss the way you work together or what is happening in your relationship, both of you must be able to talk about what each of you does that affects the other. This is not easy. Most of us have trouble describing another's behavior clearly enough that he can understand what actions of his we have in mind.

Instead of describing the other person's behavior we usually discuss his attitude his motivations, his traits and personality characteristics. Often our statements are more expressive of the way we feel about the other's actions than they are informing about his behavior. And yet we may be unaware of our feelings at the time.

Let's suppose you tell me that I am rude (a trait) or that I don't care about your opinion (my motivation). Because I am not trying to be rude and because I feel that I do care about your opinion, I don't understand what you are trying to communicate. We certainly have not moved closer to a shared understanding. However, if you point out that several times in the past few minutes I have interrupted you and have overridden you before you could finish what you were saying, I would receive a clearer picture of what actions of mine were affecting you.

The skill: Behavior description means reporting specific, observable actions of others without (1) placing a value on them as right or wrong, bad or good, (2) making accusations or generalizations about the other's motives, attitudes, or personality traits.

You try to let others know what behavior you are responding to by describing it clearly enough and specifically enough that others know what you observed. To do this you must describe visible evidence -- actions that are open to anybody's observation. Sometimes, for practice, it is helpful to try beginning your description with "I see that...." or "I noticed that...." or "I heard you say...." to remind yourself that you are trying to describe specific actions.

Examples: "Jim, you've talked more than others on this topic. Several times you cut others off before they had finished."

NOT: "Jim, you're too rude!" which names a trait and gives no evidence.

NOT: "Jim, you always want to hog the center of attention!" which imputes an undesirable motive or intention.

"Bob, you've taken the opposite of nearly everything Harry has suggested today."

NOT: "Bob, you're just trying to show Harry up." which is an accusation of undesirable motivation.

NOT: "Bob, you're being stubborn." which is name calling.

"Sam, you cut in before I had finished."

NOT: "Sam, you deliberately didn't let me finish." The word "deliberately" implies that Sam knowingly and intentionally cut you off. All that anybody can observe is that he did cut in before you had finished.

Several members of the group had told Ben that he was too arrogant. Ben was confused and puzzled by this judgment. He was confused because he didn't know what to do about it; he didn't know what it referred to. He was puzzled because he didn't feel arrogant or scornful of the others. In fact, he admitted that he really felt nervous and unsure of himself. Finally, Joe commented that Ben often laughed explosively after Ben made a comment that seemed to have no humorous aspects. Ben said he had been unaware of this. Others immediately recognized that this was the behavior that made them perceive Ben as looking down on them and, therefore, arrogant. The pattern, thus, was as follows. Ben's feelings of insecurity expressed themselves in an explosive laugh after Ben made a statement ----- Ben's laugh lead the other person to feel put down and humiliated ----- the other person perceived Ben as laughing at him ----- the other said Ben was arrogant. Note that Ben had no awareness of his own behavior which was being misread until Joe accurately described what Ben was doing.

To develop skill in describing behavior you must sharpen your observation of what actually did occur. You must force yourself to pay attention to what is observable and to hold inferences in abeyance. As you practice this you may find that many of your conclusions about others are based less on observable evidence than on your own feelings of affection, insecurity, irritation, jealousy, or fear. For example, accusations that attribute undesirable motives to another are usually expressions of the speaker's negative feelings toward the other and not descriptions at all.

John L. Wallen
Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory
1968

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROJECT
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Session 4 Posttest

Name:_____
Date:_____

For each of the situations described below, indicate what kind of communication it represents.

O/W = Simple One-Way Communication
O/WF = One-Way Communication with Feedback
T/W = Two-Way Communication

____You announce at a staff meeting a new district-wide procedure for reporting employee absences and then ask the group if there are any questions about what they are supposed to do.

____An English teacher returns the first draft of a semester research paper to the student. The teacher has made corrections on the margins of the paper and at the end has made suggestions for improving its organization.

____You read in the weekly bulletin an announcement that the Educational Materials Center is interested in hearing suggestions from school personnel about ways of improving the film distribution process.

____In a recent conversation with some of your staff, you change your low opinion about the effect of an inservice program in which they participated last year. Each staff member describes several occasions where he has been able to use what he had learned.

____You receive a memo informing you that the committee of which you are a member will meet next Wednesday at 2:00 in the Health Foyer.

____You hear on a television newscast that since April 15 falls on a Sunday this year, all federal income tax returns should be mailed by midnight, April 16, instead.

Scoring Key
Session 4 Posttest

1. OW/F
2. TW
3. TW
4. TW
5. OW
6. OW

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROJECT
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Tucson Public Schools

Management Study Group

Session 5

Communication for Agreement

Objectives

After participating in this session's activities, the participants will:

1. Know the rules of group decision making by consensus.
2. Know the conditions necessary for determining whether consensus has been reached by a group. (24)
3. Know the three steps involved in taking a survey to measure progress toward consensus. (24)
4. Be able to apply the rules and techniques of decision making by consensus in a simulated situation. (24)

Success in meeting the first three objectives will be measured by means of a written instrument administered to the participants before and after the session's activities. The fourth objective will be measured by observing and recording on a checklist the behavior of each of the participants in a simulation in a later session.

Activities for Part 3 of This Session

5-1. Appraisal of Group Problem-Solving Effectiveness (45 minutes)

Ask the participants to complete Worksheet A, Appraisal of Group Problem-Solving Effectiveness, as a means of making them more conscious of the dimensions of effective problem solving in group settings. Ask each participant to complete the worksheet for a problem-solving group he directs or participates in regularly (for most, probably a regular staff meeting). Allow about 20 minutes for the completion of the worksheet.

Give the group instructions for scoring their worksheets and encourage the participants to share their results and reactions to them. Ask the group to identify the variables the worksheet items imply are important for effective group problem solving.

5-2. Avoiding "Groupthink"; The Rules and Techniques for Decision Making by Consensus (30 minutes)

Describe to the group the phenomenon of "Groupthink" as outlined by Irving L. Janis. Focus on these points in the presentation:

1. The "Groupthink" phenomenon often masquerades as "decision making by consensus." Cohesiveness of the group is more important than the rightness or wrongness of the decision to be made.
2. Symptoms of "Groupthink"
3. Consequences of "Groupthink"

Distribute and discuss Handout 5-1, Groupthink, and Handout 5-2, Rules for Decision Making by Consensus. Point out how the rules for decision making by consensus help achieve the third condition necessary for consensus and how the techniques for improving one-way communication (Handouts 4-2, 4-3, 4-4) help achieve the first two necessary conditions.

5-3. Practice in Applying the Rules of Decision Making by Consensus (40 minutes)

Divide the group in half if more than eight participants are present. Ask each group to attempt to reach agreement on an answer to this question:

> "What standards should be used in judging the effectiveness of the Project's Management Study Group this year?"

Emphasize to each group that they must reach agreement by applying the rules of decision making by consensus, and that the team leader will test for consensus when agreement has been reached. Urge each team member to act as a "conscience" for his fellow team members, pointing out possible infractions of the rules when they seem to have occurred. Suggest that each team select a team leader to guide discussion and report the team's decision. Remind the participants to use the techniques for improving one-way communication when necessary (paraphrasing, behavior description) and to take at least one survey of the group to determine progress.

Allow the group(s) about 20 minutes for their deliberations. About five minutes ahead of time, instruct each group to take a survey of its members. If the groups say they have reached consensus, ask a participant at random to summarize the issues discussed, describe his feelings about them, and state whether he could "live with" the group's decision.

Discuss the participants' reactions to this exercise as time permits.

Appraisal of Group Problem-Solving Effectiveness

School districts hold a lot of meetings, and their usefulness depends on their quality. We are thinking specifically of either meetings of the entire faculty of your building (staff meetings) or meetings of only a part of the faculty (committee meetings).

Name of the meeting you are considering_____
How often does it usually meet?_____
Length of typical meeting_____

Now please consider what usually or typically happens in this meeting. To each of the items below, assign one of the following numbers.

5 This is *very* typical of this meeting; it happens *repeatedly*.
4 This is fairly typical of this meeting; it happens *quite often*.
3 This is more typical than not, but it *doesn't happen a lot*.
2 This is more untypical than typical, though it *does happen some*.
1 This is quite untypical; it *rarely* happens.
0 This is *not* typical at all; it *never* happens.

A	B	
1.____		When problems come up in the meeting, they are thoroughly explored until everyone understands what the problem is.
	2.____	The first solution proposed is often accepted by the group.
	3.____	People come to the meeting not knowing what is to be presented or discussed.
4.____		People ask why the problem exists and what the causes are.
	5.____	There are many problems which people are concerned about which never get on the agenda.
	6.____	There is a tendency to propose answers without really having thought the problem and its causes through carefully.
7.____		The group discusses the pros and cons of several different alternate solutions to a problem.
	8.____	People bring up extraneous or irrelevant matters.
9.____		The average person in the meeting feels that his ideas have gotten into the discussion.
10.____		Someone summarizes progress from time to time.
	11.___	Decisions are often left vague--as to what they are, and who will carry them out.
12.____		Either before the meeting or at its beginning, any group member can easily get items on to the agenda.
	13.___	People are afraid to be openly critical or make good objections.
14.____		The group discusses and evaluates how decisions from previous meetings worked out.

A	B	
	15.____	People do not take the time to really study or define the problem they are working on.
	16.____	The same few people seem to do most of the talking during the meeting.
	17.____	People hesitate to give their true feelings about problems which are discussed.
18.____		When a decision is made, it is clear who should carry it out, and when.
	19.____	There is a good deal of jumping from topic to topic--it's often unclear where the group is on the agenda.
20.____		From time to time in the meeting, people openly discuss the feelings and working relationships in the group.
	21.____	The same problems seem to keep coming up over and over again from meeting to meeting.
	22.____	People don't seem to care about the meeting, or want to get involved in it.
23.____		When the group is thinking about a problem, at least two or three different solutions are suggested.
	24.____	When there is disagreement, it tends to be smoothed over or avoided.
25.____		Some very creative solutions come out of this group.
	26.____	Many people remain silent.
27.____		When conflicts over decisions come up, the group does not avoid them but really stays with the conflict and works it through.
	28.____	The results of the group's work are not worth the time it takes.
29.____		People give their real feelings about what is happening during the meeting itself.
30.____		People feel very committed to carrying out the solutions arrived at by the group.
	31.____	When the group is supposedly working on a problem, it is really working on some other "under the table" problem.
	32.____	People feel antagonistic or negative during the meeting.
	33.____	There is no follow-up on how decisions reached at earlier meetings worked out in practice.
	34.____	Solutions and decisions are in accord with the chairman's or leader's point of view, but not necessarily with that of the members.
	35.____	There are splits or deadlocks between factions or subgroups.
	36.____	The discussion goes on and on without any decision being reached.
37.____		People feel satisfied or positive during the meeting.

(Richard A. Schmuck et al., Handbook of Organizational Development in Schools, National Press Books, 1972, pp. 264-266.)

Instructions for Scoring

1. Total the ratings in Column A and divide by 15 to obtain your "A Score," a measure of the incidence of "good" problem-solving behavior in your group.

2. Total the ratings in Column B and divide by 22 to obtain your "B Score," a measure of the incidence of "poor" problem-solving behavior in your group.

Effective problem-solving groups will have an "A Score" of 4.0 or more and a "B Score" of 2.0 or less.

Groupthink

What It Is

"...The mode of thinking that persons engage in when concurrence-seeking becomes so dominant in a cohesive ingroup that it tends to override realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action."

Symptoms

1. Illusion of invulnerability: "Laughing together at danger signals" in order to reduce anxiety. Overconfidence about the degree of risk and danger in making a wrong decision.

2. Tendency to rationalize: Rationalizations to minimize risks are offered and easily accepted by group.

3. Illusion of morality: Belief in the inherent morality of the group in an effort to avoid feelings of shame or guilt.

4. Use of stereotypes: Taking an unrealistic view of the "enemy" or the opposition. Reduces stress and enhances group pride and its belief in moral righteousness.

5. Incidence of group pressure: Concurrence-seeking that puts the loyalty of dissident members into question.

6. Self-censorship: Each member minimizes to himself the relevance or importance of his doubts.

7. Illusion of unanimity: Any silent member is assumed to be in agreement with the leader's or the majority's position.

8. Use of mindguards (analogous to body guards): Individual members act in such a way as to protect the leader or the majority view from attack by dissident members or outsiders with pertinent information.

Consequences

1. Typically only two alternatives are considered; no attempt is made to locate others that might be available.
2. Failure to reconsider a favored alternative when new facts arise to point to risks involved.
3. Little effort spent to eliminate disadvantages of the less-favored alternative (most effort spend in maximizing advantages of the favored alternative).
4. No effort made to seek information from experts.
5. Selective attention given to favorable input; unfavorable input is minimized or neglected.
6. Failure to plan for possible setbacks in implementing the favored alternative.

Preventive Measures

1. Assign the role of "critical evaluator" to each member of the group, making them all responsible for airing objections and doubts.
2. Leader of the group should maintain an impartial stance.
3. More than one group should be assigned to work simultaneously on the same issue.
4. Require each member to discuss the group's deliberations with his staff in order to get the reactions of those outside the group.
5. Invite "experts" on a staggered basis to challenge the views of the group.
6. When alternatives are being evaluated, at least one member should act as "devil's advocate."
7. Devote time to examining the warning signals from the opposing side; do not minimize risk.
8. Meet in small groups to discuss the feasibility and effectiveness of the group's alternatives.
9. Hold "second chance" meetings to consider residual doubts after a tentative decision has been made.

[This handout is a summary of the article, "Groupthink," by Irving L. Janis in the November, 1971, issue of Psychology Today (pages 43-45, 74-76). The article is available from the Project.]

Decision by Consensus

What It Is

Unlike the "majority vote" decision or the decision affected by "groupthink," the decision by consensus is one with which every member of the group has at least agreed to try out the decision. A decision by consensus can be identified by these group characteristics:

1. Every member can paraphrase the issue to show that he understands it.
2. Every member has had a chance to describe his feelings about the issue.
3. Those who continue to disagree or have doubts will nevertheless say publicly that they are willing to give the decision an experimental try for a prescribed period of time.

When It Is Needed

1. When a task, activity, or program requires the support of all who will implement it; when non-support or sabotage could endanger the success of the whole effort.

2. When implementation is so complex that those implementing it must be supportive and informed in order to be coordinated.

Rules for Decision by Consensus

1. Avoid arguing for your own individual judgments. Approach the task on the basis of logic.

2. Avoid changing your mind only in order to reach agreement and avoid conflict. Support only solutions with which you are able to agree somewhat, at least.

3. Avoid "conflict-reducing" techniques such as majority vote, averaging or trading in reaching a decision.

4. View differences of opinion as helpful rather than as a hindrance in decision making.

5. Do not assume that someone must win and someone must lose when discussion reaches a stalemate. Instead look for the next most acceptable alternative for both parties.

Techniques for Achieving Consensus

1. Effective one-way communication: Wise use of paraphrasing and behavior description skills to ensure mutual understanding of issues and to deal constructively with disagreements.

2. Stimulation of minority views: Leader asks silent members to express their views or asks a member of the majority to state minority views while a minority member verifies accuracy.

3. Taking a survey: A three-step process.
   a. Have one member present the issue as clearly as he can.
   b. Ask one or two other members to restate the issue to increase clarity.
   c. Ask everyone in turn to state his reactions to the issue and identify his position.

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROJECT
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Session 5 Posttest

Name: _____
Date: _____

1. Which of the following behaviors will increase a group's chances of arriving at a decision which they can all support and accept?

   ____Supporting the position of another group member even though you are not in total agreement with him.

   ____Supporting the position held by the majority of the group members (with which you strongly disagree) after a long, detailed discussion of the advantages of their proposal.

   ____Restating the position of a group member whose proposal you reject before stating your own position.

   ____Changing your mind about an issue when you realize you are the only one in the group who disapproves of the solution being discussed.

2. What <u>three</u> conditions must be met by a group before the group can say it has reached consensus?

   (1)

   (2)

   (3)

3. To check a group's progress toward consensus, a technique known as "taking a survey" is used. What <u>three</u> steps are involved in "taking a survey"?

   (1)

   (2)

   (3)

Scoring Key
Session 5 Posttest

1. a) Supporting the position of another group member even though you are not in total agreement with him.
   c) Restating the position of a group member whose proposal you reject before stating your own position.

2. (1) Each member can paraphrase the issue to show he understands it.
   (2) Each member has had a chance to reveal his feelings about the issue.
   (3) All members are willing to at least try out the group's decision on a temporary basis.

3. (1) Ask one member to state the issue.
   (2) Ask another member to state the issue differently to clarify it.
   (3) Ask each member in turn to state his reactions.

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Management Study Group

Session 6

Effective Meetings and Committees

Objectives

After participating in this session's activities, the participants will:

1. Know at least four of the eight reasons for assigning a task to a committee instead of assigning it to an individual. (25)
2. Know the three kinds of tasks that can be assigned a committee. (25)
3. Be able to apply the principles regarding effective committee meetings in evaluating a hypothetical committee meeting. (25)

All three of these objectives will be measured by means of a written test before and after the session.

Activities for Part 3 of This Session

6-1. Three Roles You May Play Regarding Committees
(5 minutes)

Briefly define a committee as "any group of people who have been assigned a particular job to accomplish through group deliberation." Explain that a person may play one of three roles in the operation of any given committee:

1. Member of a committee: Effective behavior as a member of a committee is the topic of Session 4 and 5 ("Communication for Understanding" and "Communication for Agreement").
2. Chairman of a committee: A role carrying more responsibility than the role of committee member. Effective behavior of a chairman will be the topic of the last half of this session.
3. Creator of a committee: A role which carries more responsibility than either of the other two. Appropriate reasons for forming committees will be the topic of the first half of this session.

6-2. Guidelines for Forming Committees
(60 minutes)

Emphasize that committees are costly mechanisms in organizations by using an example involving ten committee members earning salaries of $20,000 each. A one-hour committee meeting in this example would cost the organization $96.20 in salary expense alone. Point out that

committee action generally takes longer than the same action would take were it performed by an individual. This fact would greatly increase the relative cost of committee work. Considering the high cost of the committee as an organizational mechanism, it is important that there be good reasons for using them.

Distribute Handout 6-1, "Some Common Reasons for Selecting Committees as 'The Best Alternative Strategy.'" Discuss each of the situations on the handout, asking about each one, "Is this the only solution to this problem? What other strategies can you think of that would be either less expensive or more appropriate?"

Ask the participants to help you develop a list of some better reasons for using committees than those given on Handout 6-1. Write their responses on the blackboard. Discuss these reasons freely, focusing on those which appear on Handout 6-2, "Some Better Reasons for Selecting Committees as 'The Best Alternative Strategy.'" After 10-15 minutes of discussion distribute Handout 6-2, suggesting that they add those reasons from the blackboard list which do not appear.

Distribute and discuss Handout 6-3, "How to Get a Committee Off to a Good Start."

6-3. Chairing a Committee
(45 minutes)

Hand out Worksheet A, a memo from the team leader appointing each participant as chairman of a committee to recommend activities and evaluation methods for the two "process-based" goals for the Management Study Group. Ask the participants in turn what they would do at each of these five stages in the life of the committee to make sure the committee functioned both efficiently and effectively:

1. Before the series of committee meetings begins
2. Before each meeting
3. During each meeting
4. After each meeting
5. After the series of committee meetings ends

As before, list the participants' suggestions on the blackboard. After every "chairman" has responded to at least one of the five situations given, distribute Handout 6-4, "Responsibilities of the Effective Committee Chairman." Discuss as time permits, focusing first on those responsibilities not previously identified or clarified by the participants.

Some Common Reasons for Selecting Committees as "The Best Alternative Strategy"

Reason	A Better Strategy
1. When you don't have enough information to make a decision, form a committee; their uninformed opinions may be a good substitute for information.	
2. When you don't have the courage to make a decision yourself, form a committee; it's less unpleasant if more than one person can share the blame for an unwise decision.	
3. When you're not sure what the problem is, form a committee; they should be able to give you a solution to something.	

Reason	A Better Strategy
4. When the matter is too important to be dropped but not important to be acted upon decisively, form a committee; that way you'll be able to say somebody's working on the problem--if anyone should ask.	
5. When you think your staff's morale is low, form a staff committee; their apathy or uncooperative attitudes may disappear if you make them work together.	
6. When you're faced with a pesky problem you'd like to put off and not think about, assign it to a committee; you shouldn't have to deal with it for quite a while.	
7. When you don't trust the ability of an individual to make a decision, form a committee, including him as a member; you'll be reducing the risk of a poor decision.	
8. When that problem comes up again that is no one person's responsibility, form a committee again; folks must be used to making so many committee decisions by now.	

Some Better Reasons for Selecting a Committee as "The Best Alternative Strategy"

1. To gain the advantages of group deliberation and judgment--"Two heads are better than one." Some of these advantages:

   a. A wider range of experience
   b. A greater variety of opinion
   c. A more thorough probing of the facts
   d. More diverse training in specialized aspects of a problem
   e. Stimulation afforded by the oral exchange of ideas leading to the clarification of problems and the development of new ideas

2. To avoid delegating too much authority to a single individual. Out of such a fear of centralized authority, the framers of the Constitution established the legislature and the judicial system.

3. To make sure interested groups are represented in policy-making matters.

4. To coordinate the planning and the execution of programs. Committee members representing the various parts of an organization involved in a given program can together identify possible implementation problems no one individual could forsee.

5. To transmit possibly confusing information to all who are to be affected by a given program.

6. To consolidate "splintered" authority. Cases do arise in organizations where no one person possesses the requisite authority to execute a program. Rather than referring such cases to the top level executive, committees can bring together the authority needed. (If such cases occur with some frequency, however, perhaps authority should be redistributed to avoid the delays caused by committee action.)

7. To motivate subordinates toward acceptance of a course of action. While deliberation for this purpose can kindle wider support for a project, it may also aggravate existing divisions among subordinates. Such committee work should be handled carefully.

8. To avoid taking action on a problem. If a problem is assigned for a committee to study, and its members are selected with delay in mind, a manager may able to postpone a decision indefinitely.

Source: Principles of Management: An Analysis of Managerial Functions, Harold Koontz and Cyril O'Donnell, McGraw Hill, 1972 (5th Ed.), pp. 373-376.

How to Get a Committee Off to a Good Start

Step 1. Clarify the subject of the matter to be assigned to the committee.

The more explicit you are about the range of subjects you want the committee to consider, the less likely it is that they will "wander off the subject." Be sure every member understands what the subject is to be.

Step 2. Define the authority of the committee.

Committees may be assigned line authority, that is, the authority to make a binding decision about a certain well-defined subject. The more common committee is assigned staff authority, that is, the authority to recommend action to a decision maker or to advise him on some aspect of a problem for which he has little or no expertise. Every committee should informed as to whether they are to (1) make a decision, (2) recommend a particular decision be made, or (3) supply the decision maker with new insight on the nature of a given problem.

Step 3. Select appropriate committee members.

1. All members should be representative of the interests involved in the matter to be handled by the committee.

2. All members should possess the requisite authority to influence the interests he represents.

3. All members should be able to perform well in a group. To help insure this, it is advisable to appoint members who are on the same organizational level and who are independent enough from each other not to fear reprisal.

Step 4. Select a chairman on his ability to conduct an effective meeting.

The success of a committee heavily depends upon the skill possessed by the chairman. See Handout 6-4, "Responsibilities of the Effective Committee Chairman."

TO:

FROM:

SUBJECT: Committee Assignment

As members of the Management Study Group, you all have an interest in the kinds of activities conducted at your weekly meetings. I would like you, acting as a committee, to recommend some ways in which I could structure the remaining meetings to assure these two outcomes by the end of the full series of meetings in March:

1. At least 64 percent of your group will value active cooperation and information sharing with your peers.

2. At least 64 percent of your group will support the continuation or expansion of programs for the professional development of District No. 1 administrators.

In addition to suggested activities or kinds of activities, I would also like to have suggestions from you about how I could determine whether the activities you suggest actually result in the outcomes listed above.

Please submit your group's recommendations before the twelfth meeting (December 5, 1973). I have appointed one of your group to act as chairman, so you should receive an announcement of the first meeting and an agenda soon.

Dear

Because of your apparent skill in conducting group meetings and your participation in the activities of the last three group meetings, please assume the responsibilities of chairman of this group. Thank you.

Responsibilities of the Effective Committee Chairman

A. Before the series of meetings begins

1. Establish a measurable objective for the committee, one which describes the specific assignment of the committee, what product(s) will result from its work, and when its work will be accomplished.
2. Plan a sequence of major tasks required to reach the objective, identifying the products of each stage and a target date for completion. This will help the group keep track of its progress later on.
3. Decide how the group will work together; who will do any required outside tasks such as writing reports or collecting information, whether others not in the group will be asked to contribute, whether the group will work as a single group or in sub-groups, and other such considerations.

B. Before each meeting

1. Inform the committee members of the agenda for the meeting, being specific enough that members will be able to give some thought to each item before they come to the meeting.
2. Distribute any written material the members should examine carefully in preparation for the meeting.

C. During each meeting

1. Adhere to the agenda; keep the discussion from wondering and strive for a balance between "task-related" activity and "maintenance-related" activity.
2. Make sure every member is heard from on the issue(s) being discussed.
3. Make sure the members understand each other. Use your knowledge of paraphrasing.
4. Survey for consensus rather than assuming agreement; avoid "Groupthink" at all costs. (See Handout 5-1, p.2)
5. Summarize progress at the end of the meeting; check for understanding and agreement among members.
6. Establish an agenda for the next meeting.

D. After each meeting

Check progress made against the initial plan. Incorporate a report of this progress in announcement of next meeting.

E. After the series of meetings ends

1. Evaluate the committee's success in reaching its final objective.
2. Report to the person who formed the committee.

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROJECT
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Management Study Group
Session 6 Posttest

Name: _____
Date: _____

1. Listed below are eight situations in which committees are occasionally used. Mark with an 'X' those situations which are good reasons for using a committee.

____When a matter is too important to be dropped but not important enough to be acted upon.

____When you feel you do not have enough specialized experience to make an informed decision about some important issue.

____When you don't know who to ask for the information you need for deciding an important matter.

____When an unusual and non-recurring situation develops for which no one but the "top executive" has the necessary authority to resolve.

____When recurring (predictable) decision situations arise for which no one but the "top executive" has the authority to resolve.

____When you want to ensure the commitment of a group of people to a desired course of action.

____When you want to ensure the understanding of a group of people of an important plan of action in which they must participate.

____When you're faced with making a decision about a matter for which you are responsible but have little desire to handle.

2. What three general kinds of tasks can be assigned to a committee by a decision maker?

(1)

(2)

(3)

3. In each of the situations described below, what did the committee chairman forget to do?

   a. During the fourth meeting of the committee, one member asks of the group (with some impatience in his voice), "What exactly are we supposed to come up with in these meetings? How much longer do we have before we're expected to come up with something?"

   b. After one of the committee's meetings, one member is overheard saying jokingly to another, "You know, I'm not quite sure what it was we decided today. I sure hope I didn't commit myself to something I don't agree with!"

   c. About a half hour after the meeting begins, the chairman asks, "Well, where were we at the end of our last meeting?"

1. Second, fourth, sixth and seventh reasons are correct.

2. (1) Making a decision
   (2) Recommending a decision
   (3) Providing insight into or information about problems or issues.

3. a. Had not established a specific objective at the beginning of the series of meetings.
   b. Had not taken a good survey; did not make sure all members understood the issue being discussed and the decision being made.
   c. Did not inform the committee in advance of progress made so far.

Educational Management Project
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Management Study Group

Session 16

The Directing Function of the Educational Manager

Objectives

After participating in this session's activities, the participant will:

1. Comprehend the directing function of educational management. He will be able to define directing in his own words and will be able to distinguish the directing function from the organizing function. (13)
2. Comprehend the three dimensions of the directing function (communication, motivation and leadership). He will be able to correctly define each of these three concepts, state its purpose related to the directing function and distinguish it from the other two concepts. (13)

At least 60 percent of the participants attending this session should achieve both of these objectives as measured by their performance on a written session posttest.

Activities for Part 3 of this Session

16-1 Definition of the Directing Function (15 - 20 minutes)

Refer the participants to their Session 1 handouts on the four management functions (Handout 1-3, The Four Functions of Educational Management; Handout 1-4 of the same title; Handout 1-5, Workbreakdown Structure for Educational Management). Focusing on Handout 1-3, point out that most of the concepts, principles and techniques they have studied so far pertain to the planning function of management and as such involve the skills a manager must have in order to establish a plan for a program to meet identified educational or organizational needs. Point out that the focus of the planning and controlling functions is on programs (planned and actual), while the directing and organizing functions focus primarily on the people who implement programs.

Concentrating on the organizing and directing functions, explain that, of the two functions, the organizing function is the more closely related to the planning and controlling

functions. It is concerned with the effective performance of program-related duties, while the directing function is concerned with the needs, feelings and qualities of the individual human beings performing those duties. Illustrate this difference by pointing out that the participants' supervisors are concerned about the quality of their performance as "position titles" when they are engaged in organizing, but they are concerned about their well-being as individual human beings filling those positions when they are engaged in directing. Invite discussion of this distinction to make sure the participants understand it and to make sure they do not place any relative value on the performance of one function or the other. Emphasize that neither function can be neglected.

16-2 The Three Dimensions of The Directing Function (30-40 minutes)

Distribute Handout 16-1, the Directing Function of Management, to the participants. Discuss the definition of the directing function emphasizing that its purpose is to bring about the satisfaction of the personal needs of the people in an organization concurrently with the accomplishment of program objectives. As much as is possible, personal needs must not be sacrificed in favor of the accomplishment of objectives, nor must organizational performance be unduly sacrificed to satisfy the personal needs of those who are responsible for conducting a program. When conflicts become apparent, it is the manager's responsibility to try to reduce or resolve this conflict. The three processes at his disposal to monitor and manage the relationship of personal need satisfaction and organizational performance are communication, motivation and leadership.

Introduce the concept of communication as the means by which the manager, his superior(s),his coworkers and his subordinate staff members keep themselves informed of the quality of performance being achieved and the degree to which their personal needs are being met by their contributions to this level of performance. Communication is also often the vehicle for resolving any unacceptable disparities between performance and need satisfaction. Ask the participants to recall what they learned about communication in Sessions 4, 5 and 6 (Communication for Understanding, Communication for Agreement and Effective Meetings and Committees). Briefly review how the kinds of communication were defined, their purposes and the techniques they practiced for improving communication.

16-3 Leadership and Motivation (45-60 minutes)

Distribute Handout 16-2, Three Dimensions of the Directing Function, to the participants. Define and distinguish the concepts of motivation and leadership, using the illustration on the handout. Encourage discussion of this distinction

to assure the participants' understanding.

The manager's performance in the area of leadership and motivation depends partially on his ability to correctly identify and respond to the important work-related needs of his coworkers and his staff. The manager must be careful not to assume that all people are motivated by the same needs at all times. A theoretical study of the kinds of needs which are thought to motivate behavior in a working environment is a good way to begin developing the skill of recognizing inherent needs from the behavior of individuals.

Distribute Handout 16-3, Some Views About Motivation. Review each theory briefly, but only to make sure the participants are aware that this area of behavioral science is still not firmly established in fact. Encourage them to study more than one of the theories of motivation described on the handout in order to avoid restricting their perspectives on this issue.

Caution the participants to resist assuming that the other people with whom they work are motivated by the same needs which motivate them personally. To emphasize this point, ask the participants to complete Worksheet A for Session 16, Analyze Your Motivational Style. When the worksheets have been completed, ask the participants to complete Worksheet B, Analyze Someone Else's Motivational Style. Ask the participants to compare their own worksheets with the Worksheet B's completed by their teammates to their right. Discuss the discrepancies and similarities in the worksheet responses, and ask the question, "Which worksheet responses are more similar to your own Worksheet A responses, your own Worksheet B responses or the Worksheet B responses your teammate filled out for you?" If the group members see more similarity in the responses to the worksheets they filled out themselves, caution them again to be careful about assuming that all people are motivated by the same things which motivate them.

The Directing Function of Management

DIRECTING FUNCTION: The management function which involves the making of decisions related to the successful motivation of people who have a role to play in the management (planning, organizing, directing, and controlling) and implementation of a planned program. Directing decisions result in the optimal satisfaction of personal needs concurrent with the accomplishment of program objectives.

Important Principles:

1. *"The more effective the directing process, the greater will be the contribution of subordinates to organizational goals." (p. 513)**

   "The job of getting people to understand their goals and roles and how to accomplish them--the interpersonal aspects of managing--is clearly an integral and essential part of the [directing] process" (p. 513).

2. *"The more effective directing is, the more individuals will perceive that their personal goals are in harmony with [organizational] objectives" (p. 514).*

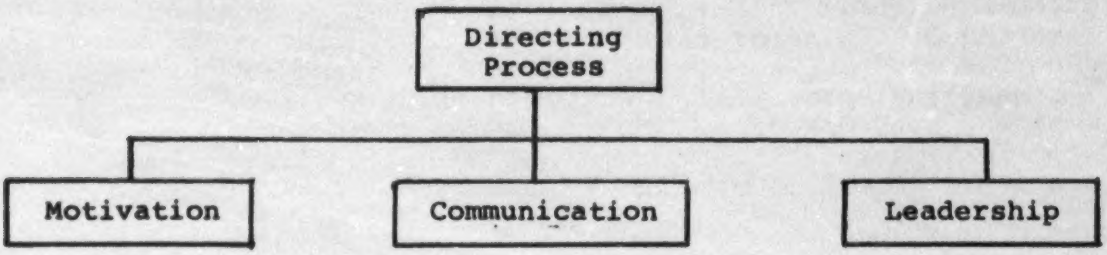
   "Although employees work to satisfy needs not necessarily the same as the [organization's] objectives, these needs must be in harmony with and complementary to the interests of [the organization], and not contrary. A good motivation system should encourage the fulfillment of those human needs which employees will work to satisfy while at the same time contributing to the achievement of [organizational] objectives" (p. 514).

3. *"The more completely an individual has a reporting relationship to a single superior, the less the problem of conflict in instructions and the greater the feeling of personal responsibility for results" (p. 514).*

   "Directing can be most efficiently carried on by one person. He knows, better than others, the nature of the subordinate, to which motivation he best responds, and his technical proficiency. Consequently, the immediate superior is in the best position to select whichever directing techniques maximize productivity, not of the individual employee particularly, but of the group of subordinates" (p. 514).

*Koontz, H.D. and O'Donnell, C. Principles of Management: An Analysis of Managerial Functions. Part Five, Five, "Directing." New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

Three Primary Sub-Processes of the Directing Process



I. Motivation

"To motivate is to induce people to act in a desired manner" (p. 525).* One of the theories of behavioral science is that an individual's actions are the result of some human drive such as the need to avoid boredom, the need for an identity or the need for security. Many human needs can be at least partially met within a working environment. It is the responsibility of the educational manager to create opportunities for each member of his staff to satisfy these needs within the organizational context. The creation of "motivators" in an organization has not yet been reduced to a science, though some commonly accepted "motivators" include the promise of recognition for accomplishment, provision for stimulation in work roles, the promise of increasing freedom of action through promotion, and opportunities for professional growth.

II. Communication

Communication in an organization is the transfer of information from one person to another in such a way that the message is understood by the receiver. The purpose of communication in an organization is to effect change, to influence the actions of organizational members in a positive way. The substance of communication is information, information that can be utilized in the making of decisions affecting the operation of an organization. Because information is so crucial to effective decision making, educational managers must create and maintain a communication system that will ensure the timely transfer of information from (1) the organization's external environment to the members of the organization and (2) one member of the organization to other members of the organization. Koontz and O'Donnell identify some of the most common barriers to communication: Badly expressed messages; faulty translations; loss by transmission and poor retention; inattention; unclarified assumptions; insufficient adjustment periods; distrust of the communicator; premature evaluation; fear; failure to communicate at all.

*Koontz, H.D. and O'Donnell, C. Principles of Management: An Analysis of Managerial Functions. Part Five, "Directing." New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

III. Leadership

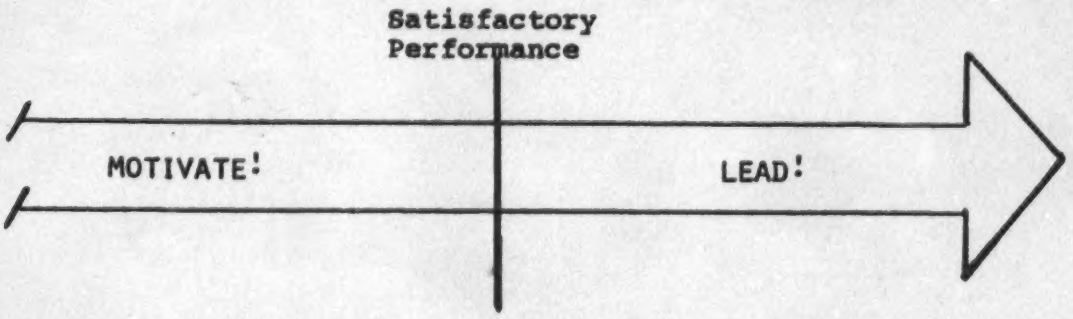
Leadership is closely associated with motivation in the directing process. Leadership is the ability to induce subordinates to accomplish their assignments with zeal and confidence. Motivation of subordinates induces them to perform in harmony with organizational objectives rather than contrary to them. Leadership inspires subordinates to work for the accomplishment of organizational objectives to their maximum capability.

Research on leadership has recently focused on classifying different kinds of leadership behavior rather than on identifying inherent personality traits associated with the concept of leadership. Research findings indicate that "good" leaders cannot be readily distinguished from "poor" leaders on the basis of characteristic personality traits. Instead, the effective leader has come to be defined as a person who can adjust his behavior to suit the requirements of specific leadership situations. In other words, the leader's effectiveness arises out of his ability to correctly "read" a situation and respond appropriately to it. No one style of leadership and no one set of personality traits are universally effective.

<u>When to Motivate - When to Lead</u>

1. Your purpose when you motivate: to change unsatisfactory work to satisfactory work when poor performance is caused by:
   - Apathy
   - Dissatisfaction
   - Low morale
   - Lack of initiative
   - Etc.

2. Your purpose when you lead: to change satisfactory performance to excellent performance when this "business as usual" attitude is caused by:
   - Lack of commitment
   - Poor coordination
   - Poor teamwork
   - Lack of common goals
   - Etc.



SOME VIEWS ABOUT MOTIVATION *

It is probable that mankind has been concerned about the motivation of children and subordinates, members of cooperative associations, peers and superiors, and those who serve in armed forces since the beginning of its existence. We are dealing with a very old problem. Even though we know more about the issues involved, we are still far from having a good grasp on what it takes to move men to act in a desired manner.

It is fashionable to think that for the great part of history, say until the last decade or two, fear has been the chief motivator—fear of the negative incentives. There is no question but that the potential loss of food, shelter, family, safety, society, and freedom itself has been a universal motivator. But there were other incentives of equally hoary age, and they were employed depending upon time and circumstance. The distribution of booty to successful armies, bribery, marriages, political favors, and the lowly polished apple were alternatives, in some cases, to the negative incentives. So also was the invention of money which could induce work from employees. And the system of patronage which enabled gifted artists to self-actualize. In the 1970s there is an opportunity to improve on the historic motivational techniques of our ancestors because a deeper knowledge of human nature is at hand.

The twentieth has been the century in which much has been added to the knowledge of human nature. As the outstanding contributors are noted, it is important to remember that everyone had to base his conceptions upon the then-current assumptions and conclusions of related sciences. This is a shifting foundation, and the end is not yet.

Frederick Taylor The motivational aspect of Frederick Taylor's contribution[3] was to prove that workers will respond to an incentive wage under conditions that reflect a careful assessment of environment, tools, fatigue, and the value added by work. It is not possible to generalize on the basis of Taylor's work because personal responsibility for results is growing more difficult to assess, fewer jobs favor the piece rate system of wages, strong unions restrict output, and information is lacking about where diminishing incentive sets in as piece rates increase.

Elton Mayo In 1927 Elton Mayo and his associates at Harvard began their pioneering work in industrial behavioral research.[4] They were originally interested in the relation of fatigue and monotony to the work situation. They were unable to prove a direct relationship between environmental factors and output but discovered something heretofore unexpected. Workers were not merely a collection of individuals: they perceived themselves as *members of a group*. Interpersonal values were superior to individual or managerial values and therefore this made members vulnerable to group pressures. In practice this means that managers who do not have the enthusiastic support of the groups they supervise will be unable to motivate individual members to a significant degree.

[3] F. W. Taylor, *Scientific Management* (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Incorporated, 1947).

[4] See F. Roethlisberger and W. J. Dickson, *Management and the Worker* (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1939).

*Koontz, H.D. and O'Donnell, C. Principles of Management: An Analysis of Managerial Functions. Part Five, "Directing." New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

Kurt Lewin Study of group dynamics was revived in the late 1930s by Kurt Lewin.[3] He provided a theoretical structure for such studies. He was able to prove that groups have a personality all their own; this personality is somewhat like a composite of members' personalities; and group forces can overpower the interests of the individual. Lewin provided the impetus for numerous studies in organizational psychology and organizational behavior, and furnished the theoretical construct for the current popular training provided by T-Groups, Managerial Grid, and D-(Development) Groups. From the motivational viewpoint, Lewin's work confirmed the importance of group control over output.

Douglas McGregor The 1960s was a decade of great productivity by the behavioral scientists. Douglas McGregor[4] stressed the importance of a manager clarifying his assumptions about the nature of man within the work situation. If a manager understood his subordinates, he would be able to select a motivational network that would better direct effort toward desired goals. Of course, the shortfall here is that much of man's nature still remains an enigma.

One of the early writers to dramatize the question of the human factor explicitly was Douglas McGregor. In his well-known *The Human Side of Enterprise*,[5] he set forth—at opposite extremes—two pairs of assumptions about human beings which he thought were implied by the actions of autocratic and permissive managers. It is important to note that these were intuitive deductions and were not based on any research whatsoever.[6] The autocratic, or "Theory X," manager is presumed to make the following assumptions about his employees:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, threatened with punishment, to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, wants security above all.

At the opposite extreme the permissive, or "Theory Y," manager assumes:

1. The expenditure of physical effort and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.
6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.[7]

[3] See his *A Dynamic Theory of Personality* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935) and *Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1951).

[4] *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960) and *The Professional Manager*, Caroline McGregor and Warren G. Bennis, eds. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967).

[5] (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960).

[6] *Ibid.*, Preface, p. vi.

[7] *Ibid.*, chaps. 3, 4.

A. H. Maslow On the basis of his classification of human needs, A. H. Maslow[7] assumed an hierarchical relationship from which he was able to deduce that *satisfied needs are not motivators*. This is a most important conclusion. On the surface it appeals to one as entirely reasonable, but it may be too simplistic. There is the problem of recurring need satisfaction, which Maslow recognized. This implies that the satisfaction of a need for food, say, is a motivator *whenever* one is hungry. There is also the problem of human foresight. In an affluent society a man may feel that he has arranged quite well for his need satisfaction; but does he allow for the numerous uncertainties, such as loss of job, technological obsolescence, age, injury, and product demand? In the short run these elements may be ignored; in the long run they are certain to affect need satisfaction. The manager who wishes to take Maslow's conclusion into the motivational system is uncertain how to proceed. Should he assume that his employees have satisfied some of their needs or none?

Frederick Herzberg On the basis of his field research, Frederick Herzberg has proposed a two-factor theory of motivation.[8] In one group he includes company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, interpersonal relations, salary, status, job security, and personal life. These environmental factors are dissatisfiers; if they are high in quantity or quality they yield *no* dissatisfaction, not satisfaction. In the second group are the job content factors composed of achievement, recognition, work, responsibility, advancement, and growth. Their quality will yield feelings of satisfaction or *no* satisfaction (not dissatisfaction). The first group has been called "hygiene" or "maintenance" factors. Their presence will not motivate subordinates, yet they must be present or dissatisfaction will arise. The job content factors are the real motivators because they have the potential of yielding a sense of satisfaction. If this theory of motivation is sound, the manager of the future will be upgrading the job content.

Chris Argyris Chris Argyris has focused his research upon the coexistence of individual and organizational needs.[9] He agrees with other behavioral scientists that man has strong self-actualization needs, and he makes the point that organizational controls leave the employee feeling submissive and dependent. Argyris asserts that the operational techniques employed in large-scale enterprises ignore the social and egoistic needs of the employee. Paired with this assumption is a second that maintains the inability of one person to motivate another. Having what Argyris calls "psychological energy," the subordinate will attach top priority to the satisfaction of his own needs. The greater the disparity between individual needs and company needs, the more an employee is likely to reflect dissatisfaction, apathy, conflict, tension, or subversion. In this conception, the technique of achieving motivation would involve offering job challenge and opportunity to employees who may need training to take advantage of the changed environment.

[7] *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954).

[8] F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. B. Snyderman, *The Motivation to Work* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959).

[9] *Personality and Organization* (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957) and *Integrating the Individual and the Organization* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1964).

Rensis Likert Rensis Likert has been a student of organizational relationships for many years.[10] He is a strong proponent of participative management. He sees the effective manager strongly oriented toward his subordinates, relying upon communication to keep all parties working as a unit. All members of the group, including the manager, adopt a supportive relationship in which they feel a genuine common interest in terms of needs, values, aspirations, goals, and expectations. Likert sees this relationship as essential to personal motivation. Any manager concerned about the motivation of his subordinates would have to think this through very carefully. It is not clear whether the manager is supposed to dissolve himself within his group or whether proof of his genuine interest in the development and goals of his subordinates is sufficient. Can a successful manager ever be "one of the boys"?[11]

Arch Patton Most of the work of the behavioral scientists on motivation has dealt with first-line supervisors and hourly workers. Little has been done on what motivates executives. One of the nation's leaders in the area of executive compensation has identified a series of motivators. Arch Patton has found the following:[12]

1. The challenge we find in work: if this is to be maximized a man must know the purpose and scope of his job responsibilities; what his authority is; what is expected of him; and have a belief in the value of what he is doing.
2. Status: although recognized for centuries in church, military, and government, industry has come to recognize it only in recent years; it includes titles, promotions, and such symbols as office size and appointments, "executive" secretary, company car, and club memberships.
3. The urge to achieve leadership: while difficult at times to distinguish from power, it is really a desire to be a leader among one's fellow men.
4. The lash of competition: this important motivating factor is present in many aspects of life.
5. Fear: this takes many forms, including fear of errors, of loss of a job, or of reduction of a bonus.
6. Money: while placed last, this by no means indicates that it is the least effective motivator; quite the contrary, it is most often more than mere money, being generally a reflection of other motivators.

[10] See his *New Patterns of Management* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961) and *The Human Organization* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967).

[11] Students of motivation will find much of interest in M. G. Evans, "Leadership and Motivation: A Core Concept," *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 13, no. 1, pp. 91–102 (March, 1970).

[12] See his *Men, Money and Motivation* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1961), chap. 2.

Analyze Your Motivational Style

Answer the following questions as honestly and as specifically as you can. Do not discuss your answers with your teammates!

1. What could happen today that would make you want to work harder tomorrow than you worked yesterday? (In other words, name an event or two that would probably help make you more productive than you are now.)

2. What could happen today that would make you not care whether you accomplished more tomorrow than you did yesterday?

3.a. From what kind of work-related activity do you generally receive the most pleasure and personal satisfaction?

b. How does this activity relate to the responsibilities assigned to your position?

____It's necessary for the performance of one or more of my major functions.

____It helps in the effective performance of my responsibilities, but it's not absolutely necessary.

____It's necessary for the performance of a function I've decided is important to my job.

____It's not necessary at all, but it just makes me (or others) feel good.

Analyze Someone Else's Motivational Style

Consider the administrator sitting at your left; assume for the moment that you are his/her immediate supervisor or a frequent professional associate. Answer the following questions about him/her, trying to identify the things you think may have the greatest effect on his/her motivation.

1. What could happen to him/her today that would make him/her work harder tomorrow than he/she worked yesterday?

2. What could happen today that would make him/her not care whether he/she accomplished more tomorrow than yesterday?

3.a. From what kind of work-related activity does he/she receive the most pleasure and personal satisfaction?

b. How does this activity relate to the responsibilities assigned to his/her position?

____ It's necessary for the performance of one or more of his/her major functions.

____ It helps in the effective performance of his/her responsibilities, but it's not absolutely necessary.

____ It's necessary for the performance of a function he/she has decided is important to his job.

____ It's not necessary at all, but it just makes him feel good.

Educational Management Project
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Management Study Group

Session 16 Posttest

Name: _____

Date: _____

1. In your own words, describe the directing function of the educational manager (its purpose, the kinds of activities the manager conducts).

2. How does the directing function differ from the organizing function? How are the two functions similar?

3. Name and describe the purposes of the three major kinds of directing activities.
   a) _____
   _____
   b) _____
   _____
   c) _____
   _____

4. What is your judgment of the concepts of educational management and the four management functions? (Check one.)
   ____These concepts seem compatible with my values and consistent with my experience.
   ____These concepts seem to violate my beliefs and/or my experience as an educational administrator.
   ____I have formed no opinion.

5. In comparison with theories and concepts of administration you have studied previously, how difficult do you think it is to understand the theory and concepts of educational management? (Check one.)
   ____No more difficult than it was to understand theories I have previously studied.
   ____More difficult to grasp than theories previously studied.
   ____I haven't really thought about this problem.

Scoring Key
Session 16 Posttest

1. Motivating, leading and communicating for the purpose of satisfying staff's personal needs concurrently with accomplishing objectives.

2. Both are concerned with staff, but organizing is concerned with their positions and job performance while directing is concerned with their human needs as individuals in a work situation.

3. a) Communication - to inform, to insure understanding and to exchange ideas to reach acceptance and agreement.
   b) Motivation - to "persuade" staff members to work in harmony with organizational objectives, not against them.
   c) Leadership - to help staff members acquire the confidence and commitment to work with less and less direct guidance.

4. First response is preferred.

5. First response is preferred.

Educational Management Project
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Management Study Group

Session 17

Effective Leadership Style

Objectives

After participating in this session's activities, the participant will:

1) Be aware of his own dominant and supportive leadership styles. He will submit the record card after completing the Management Style Diagnosis Test and will be able to correctly define his dominant and supportive leadership styles on a written posttest. (26)

2) Be aware of any needs for improvement in his leadership effectiveness. He will be able to clearly describe the kind of change, if any, he thinks advisable in his style flexibility, his situational management skill, and/or his situational sensitivity. (22)

Activities for Part 3 of This Session

17-1. The Management Style Diagnosis Test (45 minutes)

Distribute the Management Style Diagnosis Test* to the participants. Explain the purpose of this self-assessment instrument by defining leadership and by pointing out that the M.S.D.T. is the first step to be taken in evaluating one's own leadership effectiveness. Ask the participants to complete their own M.S.D.T., cautioning them to think consistently of a single specific group of people they supervise or with whom they work as peers. Each participant should score his own M.S.D.T. as far as Step 6 of the scoring procedure.

17-2. The 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness (40 minutes)

Refer the participants to Page 5 of their test booklets, and define the three dimensions of the 3-D Theory. Point out to the group that various combinations of these three dimensions result in four pairs of leadership styles. Emphasize that there are four effective management styles, not one, and that the effectiveness of any of the four basic styles depends upon whether the leadership situation requires the kind of task and relationships orientations the leader exhibits.

* Available for purchase from Organization Tests Ltd., Box 324, Fredericton, N. B., Canada

Read and discuss each of the eight leadership style definitions given on Page 5 of the M.S.D.T. Distribute Handout 17-1, The Eight Leadership Styles, to the participants. After a brief discussion, distribute Worksheet A, My Own Leadership Style, to the participants. Ask each participant to complete the first two items on the worksheet, identifying the style they wish they could exhibit and the style they think they actually use. After the worksheets have been completed, supply the participants with the information they need to complete the scoring of their M.S.D.T.'s. When scoring is completed, collect the anonymous record cards the participants have completed. Have the participants write their dominant and supportive styles on Worksheet A as indicated, and then encourage the discussion of any discrepancies between the participants' most desired styles, their expected style diagnosis, and their actual style diagnosis from the M.S.D.T.

17-3. Skills for Maximizing Individual Leadership Effectiveness (45 minutes)

Distribute Handout 17-2, Variables Affecting Leadership Effectiveness, to the participants. Review first the list of seven style expectations, pointing out that the more nearly matched these expectations are, the greater will be both the leader's effectiveness and his personal satisfaction. When discrepancies are identified between the leader's dominant style(s) and the style(s) required of him by the situational variables, the leader must have the skill to reduce or eliminate this discrepancy, either by adjusting his own leadership behavior or by changing the environment in which he works (or both). In order to identify the discrepancy, the manager must have the skill called <u>situational sensitivity</u>; in order to eliminate discrepancies he must have two additional skills: <u>situational management skill</u> and <u>style flexibility</u>.

Discuss each of these three skills in turn, using Handout 17-3, Skills for Maximizing Leadership Effectiveness, as a guide. Illustrate some common discrepancies between leader style and situational elements by use of some of W. J. Reddin's flex maps from Chapter Nine of <u>Managerial Effectiveness</u> (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970).

MY OWN LEADERSHIP STYLE

(Complete 1 and 2 before scoring your M.S.D.T.)

1. The style(s) I would most like to exhibit: _____

_____

2. The style(s) I think I actually exhibit most of the time:

_____

3. My dominant leadership style(s) according to the results of the Management Style Diagnosis Test (M.S.D.T.): _____

_____

_____

4. My supportive leadership style(s), if any, according to the M.S.D.T. results: _____

_____

_____

The Eight Leadership Styles

SEPARATED

Basic style characteristics:
- Cautious--careful--conservative--orderly
- Prefers paperwork--procedures--facts
- Looks for established principles
- Accurate--precise--correct--perfectionist
- Steady--deliberate--patient
- Calm--modest--discreet

Ineffective separated style: DESERTER
- Works to rules--minimum output--gives up
- Avoids involvement--responsibility--commitment
- Gives few useful opinions--suggestions
- Uncreative--unoriginal--narrow-minded
- Hinders others--makes things difficult
- Resists change--uncooperative--uncommunicative

Effective separated style: BUREAUCRAT
- Follows orders--rules--procedures
- Reliable--dependable
- Maintains system and going concern
- Watches details--efficient
- Rational--logical--self-controlled
- Fair--just--equitable

RELATED

Basic style characteristics:
- People come first
- Emphasizes personal development
- Informal--quiet--unnoticed
- Long conversations
- Sympathetic--approving--accepting--friendly
- Creates secure atmosphere

Ineffective related style: MISSIONARY
- Avoids conflict
- Pleasant--kind--warm
- Seeks acceptance of himself--dependent
- Makes things easier
- Avoids initiation--passive--gives no direction
- Unconcerned with output--standards--controls

Effective related style: DEVELOPER
- Maintains open communication channels--listens
- Develops talents of others--coaches
- Understands others--supports
- Works well with others--cooperative
- Trusted by others--trusts

DEDICATED

Basic style characteristics:
- Determined--aggressive--confident
- Busy--driving--initiating
- Sets individual tasks--responsibilities--standards
- Self-reliant--independent--ambitious
- Uses rewards--punishments--controls
- Task comes first

Ineffective dedicated style: AUTOCRAT
- Critical--threatening
- Makes all decisions
- Demands obedience--suppresses conflict
- Wants action--results immediately
- Downward communication only--acts without consultation
- Feared--disliked

Effective dedicated style: BENEVOLENT AUTOCRAT
- Decisive--shows initiative
- Industrious--energetic
- Finisher--committed
- Evaluative of quantity--quality--waste--time
- Cost--profit--sales conscious
- Obtains results

INTEGRATED

Basic style characteristics:
- Derives authority from aims--ideals--goals--policies
- Integrates individual with organization
- Wants participation--low power differences
- Prefers shared objectives--responsibilities
- Interested in motivational techniques

Ineffective integrated style: COMPROMISER
- Overuses participation
- Yielding--weak
- Avoids decisions--produces grey acceptable decisions
- Emphasizes task and relationships when inappropriate
- Idealist--ambiguous--distrusted

Effective integrated style: EXECUTIVE
- Uses teamwork in decision making
- Used participation appropriately
- Induces commitment to objectives
- Encourages higher performance
- Coordinates others in work

Source: W. J. Reddin. Managerial Effectiveness. Part 3, Styles. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

Variables Affecting Leadership Effectiveness

Style Expectations

Your effectiveness as a leader is dependent upon the degree to which there is agreement (congruence) among these distinct style expectations:

(1) The style you would like to have, based on your general system of values and ideals

(2) The style you think you probably exhibit to those who work with you

(3) The style revealed by the results of the Management Style Diagnosis Test.

(4) The style your superior expects of you

(5) The style your co-workers (peers) expect of you

(6) The style your subordinates expect of you

(7) The style the whole organization expects of you (it's history, long-term philosophy, traditions, precedents, etc.)

(8) The style demanded of you by the nature of work you supervise (assembly line supervision is different from supervision of professionals; profit-centered operations differ from service-oriented operations; etc.)

Whenever discrepancies become apparent, the leader has two alternatives for improving his effectiveness. He can either change or broaden his range of leadership behavior or he can work to change the expectations which he cannot meet.

Skills for Resolving Discrepancies Among Style Expectations

Effectiveness depends upon the appropriateness of a leader's response to the demands of his working situation. To maximize effectiveness, he must know how to read a situation (style sensitivity); he must have the skill to change the situation if it can be changed (situational management skill) and he must have the ability to adjust his leadership style if a situation cannot be changed (style flexibility).

Here's another way to look at it:

The Situationist's Prayer*

Oh Lord--- Give me the serenity to accept what cannot be changed,	Style flexibility
The courage to change what should be changed,	Situational management skill
And the wisdom to distinguish one from the other	Style sensitivity

* W. J. Reddin. Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970, p.136

Skills for Maximizing Leadership Effectiveness

I. Situational Sensitivity

The five situational elements to which the manager must become sensitive are:

(1) Technology
(2) Organization philosophy
(3) Superior
(4) Co-workers
(5) Subordinates

The demands or expectations of these five elements may vary considerably from each other. The manager should continuously examine each element in order to judge the basic style demanded by that element. If the expectations of his subordinates, for example, require a "related" style, the manager is not likely to be effective if his style is predominantly that of the Executive (the effective "integrated" style).

A. The criteria to apply for determining the style demanded by the technology element of your situation are as follows:

A work technology requires a separated style if (1) subordinates do more thinking than acting, (2) what subordinates do follows established procedures, (3) the work is intrinsically interesting, (4) subordinates can determine their own effectiveness standards to a large degree and (5) tasks are basically simple.

A related style is required if (1) subordinates need a high degree of skill, (2) their commitment is required, (3) they can decide their own work methods, (4) their output is difficult to evaluate in the short run, and (5) they are required to be creative.

Dedicated leadership behavior is required if (1) physical effort is required of the workers, (2) the manager knows more about the task than his subordinates, (3) unscheduled events requiring the intervention of the manager are likely to occur, (4) directions are frequently required and (5) subordinate performance is measurable.

A manager must use the integrated style if (1) the subordinates must talk to,and depend on, each other, (2) the manager must meet his subordinates as a group, (3) more than one solution is usually possible, and (4) subordinates can set their own pace.

B. Organization philosophy is an aggregate of expectations that is uniform over an organization, regardless of the unit or position being considered. The philosophy of the top manager, the organization's history, its size, the ratio of workers to managers, the organization's objectives, its national importance or visibility, the degree to which it is controlled by a legislature, the degree to which it is controlled by external forces and its location can all influence the organization's general philosophy. Co-workers, superiors and subordinates can have expectations congruent with organization philosophy, or they can each differ from that philosophy and from each other. To assess the style demands created by these four elements (organization philosophy, superior, co-workers and subordinates), the following list of criteria should be applied to each element in turn.

Separated style expectations:

(1) Continual, careful, systematic and deliberate examination of material or documents of any kind

(2) Considerable amount of objective measurement or evaluation

(3) Conscious and deliberate administration in accordance with existing principles, rules and procedures

(4) Close control to avoid variations in plan, schedule, budget or design

(5) Maintenance of records a primary expectation

Related style expectations:

(1) Absolute trust and open candid communication across departmental or status and power levels

(2) Attentive, sincerely interested listening, sometimes over long periods

(3) Complete, active, genuine acceptance of other's motives and actions even when sharply different from one's own

(4) Helpful, friendly advice

(5) Extensive, approving and sympathetic encouragement

Dedicated style expectations:

(1) Extensive planning and regular reorganization of work

(2) New tasks to be initiated independently

(3) Active direction of the work of others

(4) Completion of task at hand is foremost

(5) Rigorous evaluation of performance and appropriate action

Integrated style expectations:

(1) Decision making will be fully participative

(2) Task-oriented interpersonal interaction

(3) Considerable and approximately equal amounts of task and relationships orientations in the influence process

(4) Individual needs and organizational goals to be balanced and seen as one

(5) High number of original ideas concerning methods of improving both relationships and production

II. Style Flexibility

Compare the two lists of qualities below. The managers being described in each column behave in a similar fashion; both are capable of using the four basic leadership styles interchangeably. The difference is that the manager in the left column is in a situation that requires such variability, a "high flex" situation, while the manager in the right column is in a situation that will tolerate little variability of style, a "low flex" situation.

A leader who has high flexibility in a "high flex" situation will be described as:	A leader who has high flexibility in a "low flex" situation will be described as:
Reality-oriented	Uncommitted
Optimistic	Procrastinator
Objective	Disorganized
Other-directed	"yes" not "no"
Sensitive	Indecisive
Collaborator	Yielding
Tolerant	Inconsistent
Interdependent	Misses deadlines

Involved	Avoids adversity
Team player	Gives lip service
Colleague orientation	Many promises
Fair	Dependent
Situationist	No-Self
Adaptive	Compliant
Open-minded	Conforming
Socially adjusted	Unpredictable
Experimental	Erratic
Participates at times	Helpless
Uses all basic styles	Too sensitive
Practical	Avoids rejection

Managers who have low style flexibility are not doomed to failure, unless they find themselves in a "high flex" situation. Low flexibility managers in high flex situations are typically described as rigid, hence the term, "style rigidity". "Style resilience" is the term used to describe the more fortunate of the two managers, the low flexibility manager in a low flex situation.

A leader who has low flexibility in a "low flex" situation will be described as:	A leader who has low flexibility in a "high flex" situation will be described as:
Will power	Status-oriented
Tough-minded	Authority oriented
Headstrong	Control oriented
Simplifies issues	Prejudiced
Self-confident	Closed mind
Clear goals	Intolerant
Individualist	Inhibited
Orderly	Poor listener
Persistent	Dogmatic
Good subordinate	Low self-insight
Firm superior	Resists change
Tolerates stress	Unresponsive
Makes quick decisions	Poor co-worker
Follows orders	Brittle
Stable	Limited responses
Systematic	Overcontrolled
Disciplined	Unsociable
Decisive	Rejects subordinates
Reliable	Self first not reality
Fulfills commitments	Personal blockages

III. Situational Management Skill

Some situational characteristics are subject to change, some are not, and must be taken as "given" by the manager who wants to improve his leadership effectiveness. (The skill of situational sensitivity should enable him to tell the difference.) According to Reddin (Managerial Effectiveness, New York, 1970), there are several things a manager can do to cope with people's natural resistance to change:

(1) Diagnosis: Involving the people who will have to participate in the change in the open discussion and analysis of problems, encouraging the exchange of ideas about the current situation and possible avenues of change.

(2) Mutual objective setting: Setting new objectives by consensus to maximize support for the change and to avoid unnecessary misunderstanding.

(3) Group emphasis: Team management is increasingly being looked upon as having more potential for bringing about change than the effort of single individuals. The chances of gaining cooperation are higher when cooperation is "the order of the day".

(4) Maximum information: In instituting a change, the manager goes through four stages: Recognition of the need for change, decision about ideal state (what ought to be), design of implementation method and implementation. At each stage, the manager must honestly inform his staff of what has been decided, and at each stage, he must anticipate and handle the kind of natural resistance that occurs.

(5) Discussion of implementation: When a group who is expected to implement a change is fully informed about all the details of the plan from what the first steps will be to "who will be doing what", they often will assume responsibility for the effective implementation of the plan.

(6) Use of ceremony and ritual: A ceremonial can serve as a focus for "making official" a break with the past and a commitment to the new. It can unify a group of people in a common orientation toward the future.

(7) Resistance interpretation: Allowing a group the opportunity to voice their concerns (without fear of reprisal) when a change is to be made. Discussing the reasons for resisting the change can get at the true cause of the problem.

Some no-no's in situational management:

(1) Overemphasis on the human aspects of a change situation can result in the distortion or dissipation of the change and its possible benefits.

(2) Overemphasizing the technical aspects of a change and neglecting human aspects can result in hostility, sabotage or even mass resignation.

(3) The "earthquake" game - supplying no information about upcoming changes but "springing it on them" to avoid overt resistance and conflict.

(4) Poor planning of the way in which a change will be introduced; getting a plan on paper to the stage of implementation takes skill and careful, deliberate planning.

(5) Failure to emphasize the potential benefits of the change for those who will implement the change.

(6) Introducing a change proposal in such a way that it is perceived as inspired by personal ambition or desires for status.

While the above techniques are useful in bringing about changes in one or more of the situational elements with which the leader must deal, they are not the only useful techniques. Every action a manager takes has the potential of changing the characteristics of the leadership situation. With careful attention to planning, organizing, directing and controlling (the four functions of the manager), the manager can increase the likelihood that his day-to-day actions will result in positive change.

Source: W. J. Reddin. Managerial Effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT PROJECT
E.S.E.A. Title III
Tucson Public Schools

Management Study Group
Session 17 Posttest

Name: _____
Date: _____

1. Now that you have completed the Management Style Diagnosis Test, you should be able to describe your perception of yourself as a leader. In the space below, name your dominant leadership style(s) and your supportive style(s) (if any), and then describe these style(s) in terms of (a) degree of task orientation, (b) degree of relationships orientation and (c) the overall effectiveness of this behavior in your working situation.

2. Assuming the accuracy of the M.S.D.T. in identifying your leadership style(s), are you satisfied with the diagnosis?
Yes _____ No _____ (Please answer Questions 3 and 4)

3. If you are dissatisfied with the results of your M.S.D.T., in which one of the following skills do you think improvement is most needed? (Check only one.)

_____My own style flexibility.

_____My ability to successfully affect the important situational factors of organizational philosophy, the "technology" demands of my work, the expectations of my superiors, of my co-workers and/or of my subordinates.

_____My ability to correctly identify the relationships among the elements of my situation and my own leadership style(s).

4. Why do you think the skill you checked in No. 3 is the <u>most</u> crucial in improving your leadership effectiveness?

Scoring Key
Session 17 Posttest

1. Names and correctly defines (in his own words) at least one of the eight leadership styles of the 3-D Theory of Managerial Effectiveness.

2. If style(s) in #1 is an "effective" style, he answers "yes"; if style(s) in #1 is an "ineffective" style, he answers "no".

3. At least one must be checked if response to #2 was "no".

4. Any answer is all right so long as it is understandable and relates to the meaning of the skill or attribute he checked in #3. (Related in such a way that his response could not easily be interpreted as pertaining equally well to all these responses in #3).